DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 412 673 EC 305 871

AUTHOR	Schmid, Rex E., Ed.; Evans, William, Ed.
TITLE	Curriculum Instruction Practices for Students with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders. From the Second CCBD Mini-Library Series: Successful Interventions for the 21st Century.
INSTITUTION	Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders.
ISBN	ISBN-0-86586-305-9
PUB DATE	1998-00-00
NOTE	63p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Council for Exceptional Children, 1920 Association Dr., Reston, VA 20191-1589 (stock no. D5239).
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - General (020) -- Guides - Non-Classroom (055) -- Reports - Descriptive (141)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	*Behavior Disorders; *Behavior Modification; Elementary Secondary Education; *Emotional Disturbances; Inclusive Schools; *Instructional Design; Internet; *Multicultural Education; *Student Evaluation; Videodisks
IDENTIFIERS	*Functional Assessment

ABSTRACT

This monograph presents some of the current developments in curriculum and instruction for students with emotional/behavioral disorders. After an introductory chapter, Chapter 2, "Multicultural Education and Students with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders" (Xu Di, Susan Stewart, and Martha Lisner), discusses how teachers can use culturally sensitive methods and strategies when working with a student population that is both culturally diverse and has emotional and behavioral disorders. Chapter 3, "Functional Assessment and Support Plans" (Shanna Hagan and George Sugai), explores how educational professionals can use functional assessment to identify the purposes served by the inappropriate behavior of students with emotional/behavioral disorders and design behavior-support plans. Chapter 4, "Guidelines for Providing Access to the Internet" (Rick Smith), describes how a district used the Internet as a strategy for increasing school performances and lowering the dropout rate. Chapter 5, "Instructional Design and Videodisk Technology" (Mack D. Burke, Gail Coulter, and Bonnie Grossen), identifies features of instructional design that accommodate the needs of students who are academically unsuccessful and discusses the use of videodisk instruction to improve performance. Chapter 6, "The TABS Program: A School-Wide Approach for Children and Youth with Behavioral Problems" (Rex E. Schmid), describes an elementary intervention program for students who chronically disrupt classroom instruction and learning. (Contains 66 references.) (CR)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED 412 673

Curriculum & Instruction Practices

for Students with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders

Rex E. Schmid & William Evans, Editors

EC 305 871

C C
B D
Council for
n with
ioral
ders

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL IN OTHER THAN PAPER COPY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
GREER
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

2

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

From the Second CCBD Mini-Library Series: Successful Interventions for the 21st Century

Curriculum and Instruction Practices

for Students with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders

Editors

Lyndal M. Bullock & Robert A. Gable, *Series Editors*

The Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders, *Publisher*

About the Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders

CCBD is an international professional organization committed to promoting and facilitating the education and general welfare of children and youth with behavioral and emotional disorders. CCBD, whose members include educators, parents, mental health personnel, and a variety of other professionals, actively pursues quality educational services and program alternatives for persons with behavioral disorders, advocates for the needs of such children and youth, emphasizes research and professional growth as vehicles for better understanding behavioral disorders, and provides professional support for persons who are involved with and serve children and youth with behavioral disorders.

In advocating for the professionals in the field of behavioral disorders, CCBD (a division of The Council for Exceptional Children) endorses the Standards for Professional Practice and Code of Ethics adopted by the Delegate Assembly of The Council for Exceptional Children in 1983.

About This Monograph

Stock No. D5239, ISBN 0-86586-305-0

Copyright © 1998 by The Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders, a Division of The Council for Exceptional Children, 1920 Association Drive, Reston, Virginia 20191-1589.

Printed in the United States of America

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2

Contents

Foreword v

1. Introduction 1

2. Multicultural Education and Students With Emotional/Behavioral Disorders 3
   - Classroom Environment 5
   - Direct Instruction 6
   - Cooperative Learning 8
   - Social Skills 10
   - Learning Strategies 11

3. Functional Assessment and Support Plans 13
   - Functional Assessment 14
   - Designing Behavior-Support Plans 17

4. Guidelines for Providing Access to the Internet 21
   - Planning Issues 22
   - Hardware 22
   - Software 24
   - Personnel 25
   - Internet Skills 25
   - Policy Considerations 26

5. Instructional Design and Videodisk Technology 27
   - Instructional Design That Accommodates Special Learning Needs 28
   - Using Videodisk Instruction to Improve School Performance 30
   - Selection and Evaluation Procedures for Instructional Tools 32

6. The TABS Program: A School-Wide Approach for Children and Youth with Behavioral Problems 37
   - The Elementary School 39
   - The Program 40

7. Summary 53

8. References 55

Foreword

This is the second mini-library series that addresses the needs of students identified as "seriously emotionally disturbed" or "emotionally/behaviorally disordered." As with the first series, the content stems from selected presentations at an international conference sponsored by the Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders (CCBD). These monographs are also a response to the reality that the number of children and youth who evidence challenging behavior is growing. These students manifest a range of social, academic, and behavior problems that test the skills of even the most capable classroom teachers. Educators and other professionals are struggling to find ways to deal successfully with the mounting challenges these students present.

Fortunately, as the number of problems increases, so too does the body of accumulated literature on practices of proven effectiveness for students with emotional/behavioral disorders (EBD). Drawing upon the expertise of CCBD members, we have assembled a seven-volume series of monographs that delve into some of the specific areas and programs for students with EBD and the education professionals who work with them:

- *Alternative Programs for Students with Social, Emotional, or Behavioral Problems*
  Mary Magee Quinn and Robert B. Rutherford, Jr.
- *Curriculum and Instruction Practices for Students with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders*
  Rex E. Schmid and William Evans, Editors

- *Developing Personal and Interpersonal Responsibility in Children and Youth with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders*
  Sylvia Rockwell, Santa Cuccio, Beth Kirtley, and Gwen Smith
- *Developing Social Competence in Children and Youth with Challenging Behaviors*
  Kristine J. Melloy, Carol A. Davis, Joseph H. Wehby, Francie R. Murry, and Jennifer Leiber
- *Enhancing Self-Respect: A Challenge for Teachers of Students with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders*
  Ann Fitzsimons-Lovett
- *Individual and Systemic Approaches to Collaboration and Consultation on Behalf of Students with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders*
  Robert A. Gable, George Sugai, Tim Lewis, J. Ron Nelson, Douglas Cheney, Stephen P. Safran, and Joan S. Safran
- *Teaching Children and Youth Self-Control: Applications of Perceptual Control Theory*
  John W. Maag

In these seven monographs, we have attempted to bring together information that addresses the needs of general and special educators, administrators, and other professionals who face the myriad challenges of children and youth at risk for or with EBD. We are grateful for the contributions of the monograph authors and hopeful that their efforts will prove useful to you in your work on behalf of students with EBD.

Lyndal M. Bullock
University of North Texas

Robert A. Gable
Old Dominion University

Series Editors

Introduction 1

Children and youth with emotional/behavioral disorders have the highest academic failure rate of all students with disabilities (Kauffman, 1997; Paine & Anderson-Inman, 1988; Steinberg & Knitzer, 1992; U.S. Department of Education, 1991). Issues of curriculum and instruction are inseparably intertwined with behavioral intervention practices in that these students display behaviors that "(a) are chronic, severe, and disturbing to the school community, (b) are particularly resistant to standard or typical classroom behavior management practices, and (c) interfere with the students' educational performance" (Sugai & Lewis, 1997, p. 6).

With the shift toward including more children with special needs in mainstream classrooms and the increasing access to the Internet, curriculum and instruction for students with emotional/behavioral disorders continues to evolve. This monograph presents some of the current happenings in this evolution. We would like to thank the following authors for writing the chapters of this monograph:

- Chapter 2
  Xu Di, Susan Stewart, and Martha Lisner
- Chapter 3
  Shanna Hagan and George Sugai
- Chapter 4
  Rick Smith

- Chapter 5
  Mack D. Burke, Gail Coulter, and Bonnie Grossen
- Chapter 6
  Rex E. Schmid

They addressed aspects of this evolution that have and will continue to vex and challenge professionals working to improve curriculum and instruction practices for children and youth with emotional/behavioral disorders. It is our hope that the monograph will assist readers to improve their efforts and success rate with this specific group of exceptional children and youth.

Multicultural Education and Students With Emotional/ Behavioral Disorders

2

Multicultural education developed within complex political and cultural contexts and has close connections with prominent 20th-century educational movements (Davidman & Davidman, 1997; Gay, 1992; Lynch, 1989; Nieto, 1992; Pai, 1984). From the GI Bill to special education legislation to the bilingual education movement, American education has evolved around the central theme of equal access to education (Cremin, 1988; Sadovnik, Cookson, & Semel, 1994). This rapid evolution produced another challenge — "equality of quality." The surge of minority students, students with special needs, and students from diverse backgrounds in American public schools has seriously strained the traditional curriculum and instructional approaches rooted in "Anglo-conformity and the assimilationist's model" (Cushner, McClelland, & Stafford, 1992).

It is in this context that multicultural education emerged as a powerful and uniting force. It unites all the movements for educational

equity and quality and advocates educational excellence for all: majority and minority, males and females, general education students and students with special needs, healthy ones and those suffering illnesses, English speakers and speakers of other languages, the rich and the poor, and the old and the young.

The primary goals of multicultural education are to develop understanding, tolerance, open-mindedness, and respect within and without educational institutions so that equity, quality, equality, and justice can be achieved for all students. These goals are inclusive rather than benefiting an individual, a particular group, or specific culture. More importantly, they promote a better and peaceful society and world where both diversity and similarity are relished and where humanity and democracy are celebrated.

As varied as the special educational programs (and their students) are, they share common goals. All the programs aim at making education equally accessible to students with special needs; assisting them to develop morally, socially, academically, and physically to their fullest potential; and helping them to be full and productive members of society. In addition, special education aims at promoting understanding and enhancing social skills for students in general educational programs; fostering their sensitivity, tolerance, and open-mindedness; and helping them to develop into well-rounded human beings. Moreover, the goals of special education not only benefit students in school or after their schooling, but also benefit social, cultural, political, and economic development of this country and the world.

A brief comparison of the definition and goals of multicultural education and those of special education indicates that the two are not separated and isolated educational processes. Instead, they are intertwined and integrated, based on the principles of democracy, human dignity, and individuality. They share the same ultimate goals. On the one hand, they provide all students with equity and quality in their education; meet the diverse needs of individuals; and develop students morally, socially, academically, and physically to their fullest potential. On the other, they promote understanding, justice,

open-mindedness among people of diversity and build a harmonious, productive, tolerant, and peaceful society.

With these common goals is common methodology. To reach students of all needs, both multicultural education and special education stress a student-centered approach and individualized instruction with consideration given to students' social, cultural, mental, and physical backgrounds as well as to their current abilities. Teaching and learning proceed from the known and the familiar to the unknown and the new, at a manageable pace for each individual student, and with a variety of approaches. Therefore, it is not an exaggeration to say that the success of multicultural education and that of special education is interdependent. Multicultural education cannot be complete without special education, whereas special education cannot accomplish its goals without implementing multicultural education.

Special education, especially in the area of emotional/behavioral disorders (EBD), has an abundance of students with diverse cultural backgrounds due in some measure to the connections among low socioeconomic status, diverse cultural background, and EBD (The Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders, 1989; McKinney, Montague, & Hocutt, 1993). The combination of best practices for multicultural education and best practices for students with EBD is a comfortable one. An effective teacher will use methods and strategies that are well researched when working with a population that is culturally diverse and EBD. For those who daily work with students with EBD, the methods and strategies discussed in this monograph will be familiar. What may be new is the emphasis on the use those methods in a culturally sensitive manner.

Classroom Environment

Teachers set the tone of their classrooms which in turn reflect their response to students and community. To welcome culturally diverse students, classrooms need to reflect the cultures of the students who use them. A multicultural classroom places an "emphasis on equity and development of the learner's potential" (Bennett, 1995, p. 284). This can be accomplished with the use of culturally relevant and

familiar materials. The walls, bulletin boards, and other displays give clues about the cultures of the students. Lesson plans are designed to place content within meaningful context with opportunities for students to use language in meaningful ways. A variety of teaching methods and small group instruction is used whenever appropriate (Walker & Shea, 1995). Visitors from the community come to share their knowledge and expertise with the students. When possible, to reinforce what is taught in the classroom, students visit places in the community (Friend & Bursuck, 1996; Gersten, Brengelman, & Jimenez, 1994; Rueda & Garcia, 1996; Ruiz, 1989; Salend, 1994). Effective teachers emphasize the positive in their classrooms and use positive reinforcement as the method of choice for behavior management. The goal is to make the classroom a positive environment for learning. To do this well in a culturally diverse classroom, teachers must be aware of acceptable behaviors within each of the cultures represented in the class (Clark-Johnson, 1988; Grossman, 1991; Hyun & Fowler, 1995; Morrow, 1989).

Direct Instruction

The direct instruction model (Center, 1989; Salend, 1994) includes the components of "mastery learning" recommended by the Executive Committee of the Council for Children with Behavior Disorders (CCBD, 1989) for students from culturally diverse backgrounds and those with EBD. To mastery learning, direct instruction adds the components of establishing a purpose, modeling, guided practice, feedback, independent seatwork, and evaluation for mastery. It incorporates teaching techniques (e.g., fast pace, active student responses, and feedback) that are considered effective for students who are culturally diverse and have EBD (CCBD, 1989; Friend & Bursuck, 1996; Gersten et al., 1994).

These added steps in direct instruction ensure that students know why they are learning, have the opportunity to practice with help from the teacher or peers, and are re-taught the lesson if instruction is not successful. The direct instruction model includes 10 components.

1. Review reason for learning. Establish with the students a purpose for the lesson. Activate previous knowledge and set the stage for learning. Give students the opportunity to discuss how the skill will be used in their lives, if someone they know uses the skill, and if they can think of a way they will use the skill in the future.
2. Check for skills needed to learn new skills. This is the pretest stage to determine if a student is missing an important prerequisite skill needed to grasp the lesson.
3. Develop a behavioral objective and plan how to teach the new skill. At this point, break the skill into its component parts and determine the order and method for teaching and the materials needed. Consider ways to incorporate community and cultural influences.
4. Present the lesson. Introduce the topic, give clear directions, and provide examples that have meaning for the students. Use this time to ensure understanding and review the essential steps. This instruction is conducted at a pace brisk enough to keep students involved (Paine, Radicchi, Rosellini, Deutchman, & Darch, 1983).
5. Model the new skill. Point out what is being demonstrated. Use a think-aloud process to give the students a clearer idea of what is happening and the steps being followed. Because many students may need visual as well as auditory instruction, modeling is a crucial step in the learning process.
6. Check for comprehension through the use of questioning. After modeling, ask students questions to determine if they followed the sequence of the lesson and if they remember the steps involved in the lesson.
7. Provide guided practice opportunities. Once the skill is modeled and checked for comprehension, practice the skill with the students. As they practice, talk through the steps. Guided practice may need several repetitions.
8. Practice the skill during seatwork activities. Provide students with opportunities to practice the skill while the teacher circu-

lates and monitors their performance. During this time, provide prompts and cues, give feedback that is specific and corrective, and praise student effort and accomplishments. By incorporating peer-tutoring and cooperative-group activities during this portion of the lesson, an atmosphere for enhanced learning is created.

9. Review the lesson and check student learning. When the lesson is finished, review the main points and link this lesson to previous lessons so students see their new skill is part of a larger picture.
10. Give a posttest. A posttest will indicate if students have reached the behavioral objective. If students have met the goals, the class will go to the next lesson. If students have not met the goals, go back to Step 3 and reevaluate the objective and plan.

Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning provides opportunities for students to help one another, to develop academically, and to develop socially (Correa & Tulbert, 1991). The opportunities within the cooperative-learning situation also allow students to move past stereotypic thinking and develop cross-gender and cross-ethnic friendships (Davidman & Davidman, 1997; Platt, Cranston-Gingras, & Scott, 1991). Not surprisingly, it is a practice recommended for students with EBD and from ethnically diverse backgrounds (Bell, Young, Blair, & Nelson, 1990; Friend & Bursuck, 1996; Gersten et al., 1994; Maheady, Mallette, & Harper 1991; Paris & Winograd, 1990; Ruiz, 1989; Salend, 1994; Scruggs & Brigham, 1990; Shea & Bauer, 1997).

There are various cooperative-learning arrangements. All share at least five common aspects:

1. Set the rules and guidelines for working in groups.
2. Instruct students on how to work in groups and give opportunities to model and role-play appropriate behaviors.
3. Place students in heterogenous groups, considering gender, race, ethnicity, performance, and ability levels.

4. Once the groups are in place and working, supervise and monitor them.
5. Track program effectiveness and fine-tune the process.

Sometimes the group format, membership of and student roles within the groups, and/or size of the groups is changed to fit the goals of instruction.

When planning cooperative-learning activities, consider which format is best suited for the content and for the students in the class. Among the most commonly used formats are

- *Numbered Heads Together.* This cooperative-learning activity is designed to actively engage all students in learning. First, place students in heterogeneous groups of four with each group member given a number one through four. During class instruction, present questions from the lesson with each group working together to (a) answer the questions and (b) ensure that each member of the group is capable of answering if called upon. At the end of group work, call the number of one member from each group. These students are expected to answer the questions correctly which earns points for their groups (Friend & Bursuck, 1996; Maheady et al., 1991; Salend, 1994).
- *Jigsaw.* Students are again grouped with a project assigned to each group. Each member of the group is given a different portion of the project to research and then is responsible for teaching the information gleaned to the other members of the group. When each member has completed his or her work, the project is compiled into one product. At the end of this activity, each group member is assessed on all parts of the project (Friend & Bursuck, 1996; Kagan, 1989-1990; Salend, 1994).
- *Classwide Peer Tutoring (CWPT).* In CWPT, students are taught tutoring procedures. The class is divided into two teams with members of the each team separated into dyads. During half the time set aside for CWPT, one member of each dyad is the tutor and the other is the learner. In the second half of the time, the members switch roles. This method of instruction increases student opportunities for practice. CWPT can be used with read-

ing, math, spelling, vocabulary and other functional academics (Bell et al., 1990; Friend & Bursuck, 1996; Salend, 1994).

Social Skills

Social skills are the skills necessary to be accepted by peers and teachers and to adapt to new social situations (Clark-Johnson, 1988; Friend & Bursuck, 1996). Students need to have the social competence to respond to any situation with behavior that is appropriate for the setting. Because many students with EBD and students from diverse cultural backgrounds are unaware of appropriate behavior for school settings, social skill instruction is an important part of the curriculum. Teachers and other education professionals need to recognize, however, that differences in behavior may be cultural (Salend, 1994; Walker, 1988; Yee, 1988). Once these cultural differences are recognized and acknowledged, they can be incorporated into the classroom framework.

Where it is determined that social skills deficits exist, instruction in these skills can be incorporated in the curriculum. The best way for students to learn a social skill is to see someone else using it. Therefore, an effective method of teaching social skills is through the seven steps of modeling:

- *Prior to modeling the skill, introduce it to the students.* Students need to see the relevance of the skill; they need to understand that using the skill will be useful to them.
- *Inform students of the skill's component parts.* If not using a commercial program, task analyze the skill and break it into component parts. Students who are aware of a skill's components are better observers.
- *Demonstrate the skill.* If a student is acting as the model, teach the student the skill in advance. During the demonstration it is important that all components of the skill be included and more than one situation needs to be demonstrated.
- *Stage a cognitive rehearsal of the skill.* Before practicing the skill, have students verbally review the component parts of the

skill. Correct mistakes by going over the demonstration until the students have included all the components in their proper order.

- *Provide role-playing situations.* Students must demonstrate the components of the social skill as they role-play. During this phase, give the students positive, corrective feedback.
- *Include an evaluation phase.* Evaluate the students using a checklist based on the components of the skill.
- *Include generalization.* The students have generalized the social skill if they spontaneously use it in the classroom without prompts or cues.

Learning Strategies

Students with EBD and from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds often lack the skills or strategies necessary for successful classroom performance (Friend & Bursuck, 1996; Jimenez & Gamez, 1996; Platt et al., 1991). One such area, essential for academic success, involves *learning strategies,* which are those "techniques, principles, or rules which enable a student to learn to solve problems and complete tasks independently" (Schumaker, Denton, & Deshler, 1984, p. 1). Rather than replace the existing curriculum, learning strategies complement the regular curriculum by giving students the tools needed to learn and perform classroom tasks.

Choosing which learning strategies to teach requires assessing the students and determining which skills are missing. Once the assessment stage is complete, choose strategies which will assist students in learning. The strategies chosen may be those developed for the Learning Strategies Curriculum, strategies found in textbooks and journals, or ones developed by the teacher. The goal is to choose strategies that will transfer to classroom use, assist students in their classroom performance, and represent strategies that students can see a need for and are willing to learn (Friend & Bursuck, 1996; Jimenez & Gamez, 1996; Platt et al., 1991; Salend, 1994).

When developing a learning strategy, assessment should be followed by a rank-ordering of the student's weak skill areas — from most to least critical. Next, task analyze the most critical skill into a group of steps that the students can learn. The steps should be kept few in number and have specific directions. Develop a brief and easy-to-learn summary of the steps and create a mnemonic device to help the students remember each step. Last, develop a group of activities and tasks that requires use of the new strategy. These tasks can be used by the students to practice the strategy and determine whether the use of the strategy will work (Friend & Bursuck, 1996; Marks, Van Laeys, Bender, & Scott, 1996).

To teach strategies, most authorities suggest using a direct instruction model combined with cognitive behavioral procedures. Begin by setting the stage and discussing with students the purpose of the strategy and the benefits of learning the strategy. Once students have committed to learning the strategy, model it in conjunction with "thinking aloud." In the next step, the students practice the strategy by verbally reviewing the steps and are quizzed on the steps as a group and individually (Friend & Bursuck, 1996; Montague, Applegate, & Marquard, 1993; Schumaker et al., 1984). Once students grasp the strategy, they should be given repeated opportunities to practice with materials and tasks specifically chosen to permit easy use of the strategy. Verbal cues and specific, positive feedback should be used to guide the students in their practice. As the students progress, praise is given only for work that is well done.

After students have demonstrated an understanding of the skill and have used it successfully on materials chosen for the strategy, give students assignments for which the newly learned strategy is appropriate. During this time, the cues and prompts are faded. A posttest is given to determine progress. If students have reached the goal, they are ready for the generalization stage. If students have not reached the goal, it may be necessary to go back to the prior stages, re-teach the strategy, and provide more practice.

Functional Assessment and Support Plans 3

Learning for most children and youth is a natural process in which teaching is largely a matter of fostering their natural inclination to explore and interact with the world surrounding them. However, many students with emotional/behavioral disorders (EBD) arouse negative feelings in adults, are unpopular with their classmates, and usually experience both social and academic school failure. Their behavior is so persistently exasperating that they provoke correction and censure. In fact, the most common school responses to students who chronically challenge and disrupt teaching and learning are punishment and exclusion — neither of which have proven to be effective solutions (Mayer, 1995; Sugai & Horner, 1996).

Perhaps the greatest shortcoming, however, is the failure to assess the function or purposes served by inappropriate behavior. Because behaviors are purposeful and maintained within environments that support them, teaching students appropriate behavior requires addressing the function and purposes of problem behaviors. Strategies that transcend attempts to punish or reduce undesirable student behaviors are required if meaningful behavior changes and significant academic learning are to take place. To be effective with these students, education professionals must develop and implement proactive interventions that (a) address the function of problem behaviors, (b) offer alternative behaviors that serve the same purpose as

the problem behaviors, and (c) employ effective instructional procedures for teaching both academic and social behaviors.

Functional Assessment

Before developing interventions, education professionals must determine the function or purpose a student's behavior serves. *Functional assessment* is the process of gathering data to appraise an individual's behaviors and to determine a likely explanation for the purposes those behaviors serve. A key feature of functional assessment is identification of the relationships between problem behaviors and the events before *(predictors)* and after *(maintaining consequences)* that make those behaviors more likely to recur. Additionally, environmental conditions *(setting events)* are identified that affect the occurrence of target behaviors. There are five basic elements of a functional assessment.

- Problem behaviors are identified, including groups or sequences of behaviors that frequently occur together. These behaviors are operationally defined; their dimensions identified for characterization (rate, duration, latency, topography, force, and locus); the context of occurrence described; and the purpose for engaging in the behaviors established.
- Events, times, and situations are identified that predict when problem behaviors will and will not occur throughout the typical daily routine. Predictors (triggers) are antecedent to and may prompt or forecast specific behavior(s). Examples of predictors include time of day, physical setting, presence or absence of an individual, and specific activities or routines (O'Neill et al., 1997). Related to predictors are setting events which are the aspects of the environment and daily routines. While they do not directly control behavior (Gable, 1996), they do increase or decrease the prospect of a behavior because of their impact on predictors and consequence values.
- Consequences are identified that maintain the problem behaviors. Consequences are subsequent to and may affect or influence the recurrence frequency or intensity of specific behaviors. Rewarding consequences maintain and/or increase behavior fre-

quency or intensity while punishing consequences decrease behavior frequency or intensity.

- Summary statements or testable explanations are developed that describe specific behaviors, the precise situation in which they occur, and the outcomes or reinforcers that promote their recurrence in that situation.
- Direct observation data are collected to support the summary statements that are developed (Horner, 1994; O'Neill et al., 1997).

Collecting and Using Data

The accuracy of conclusions derived from a functional assessment will depend upon the collection and use of relevant, accurate data. Once gathered, data can be summarized into information to facilitate the development of a statement about which behavior is occurring, why, and in what context. This information becomes a testable explanation. Two valuable sources of information for functional assessment of behaviors are interviews and direct observation.

- *Interviews.* Valuable data may be acquired by interviewing individuals familiar with a student, his or her problem behaviors, and circumstances surrounding their occurrence. Individuals who work with the student have numerous opportunities to observe the student in environments that support the problem behaviors and may be aware of setting events that are otherwise difficult to identify. Interviews may also be conducted with the targeted student whose behaviors are being assessed (see O'Neill et al., 1997). Interviews take place after the behaviors have happened and may be limited by the informant's (a) memory, (b) presence during the behavior, (c) distraction by other events, (d) potential bias, and/or (f) ability to verbalize what was seen or experienced. Nevertheless, functional interviews provide valuable data for functionally assessing student behavior.
- *Direct Observation.* Observing a student's daily routines in natural situations where problem behaviors take place can produce an accurate measure of potential predictors and consequences that influence the recurrence of behaviors (Alberto & Troutman, 1995). Observations should be conducted in a manner that (a)

minimizes interference with normal daily events and (b) does not require extensive training (O'Neill et al., 1997).

Summarizing Data

The data gained by interviewing individuals familiar with a student and by directly observing typical routines should be summarized into useful information about the target behavior. Tobin (1994) provides six categories for information in order to determine common findings across different sources.

- Times and situations when the particular problem behaviors are most and least likely to occur (e.g., most likely to occur in morning content classes, least likely to occur when a particular aide is working with the student).
- Events and situations that typically occur before (predictors) a target behavior (e.g., is asked to share toys with peers, is confronted with waiting for a turn).
- Events and situations that typically occur after (consequences) a target behavior (e.g., is sent to the office, is immediately assisted by an adult, receives attention from peers).
- Indications of common setting events for problem behavior (e.g., does not get enough sleep, gets into a fight on the bus, experiences failure in previous class).
- Other behaviors that are temporally associated with a target behavior (e.g., complains and argues with peers, is off-task and verbally disruptive in class).
- Individuals who are present or involved with the target behavior (e.g., frequently engages in target behavior when particular group of peers are present, often performs target behavior when working with a specific teacher).

If there is reasonable agreement across sources of information, a statement about conditions under which the behavior is likely to occur (or not occur) may be formulated. This statement, sometimes referred to as a summary statement, is a testable explanation. A *testable explanation* is a statement that describes the conditions under which a behavior is likely to happen; it represents a hypothesis or

"best guess" about when, where, and why a behavior occurs. Testable explantations should (a) describe a target behavior in observable and measurable terms, (b) include the context in which the target behavior occurs, and (c) be testable. "If consistent patterns of behaviors, predictors, and apparent functions are evident and these are consistent with summary statements, you have probably collected enough data and are ready to move to program development and implementation" (O'Neill et al., 1997, p. 54). On the other hand, if patterns do not indicate that a predictable change in behavior is consistently associated with a change in conditions, the testable explanation must be modified to provide a more accurate description of the situation.

Designing Behavior-Support Plans

A behavior-support plan designed using functional assessment information produces an individualized program for teaching and promoting desired behaviors that will serve as alternatives to problem behaviors (O'Neill et al., 1997; Sprague, Sugai, & Walker, in press). O'Neill et al. (1997) suggest that the following be considered when designing behavior-support plans.

- Focus beyond decreasing problem behavior. Reactive approaches alone have failed to promote desired behaviors among students exhibiting chronic behavior problems. Before attempting to eliminate a problem behavior, first identify an alternative, desirable behavior that the student should perform.
- Base support plans on functional assessment results. A behavior support plan should use functional assessment information to identify specific changes in a classroom or school that will affect the occurrence of problem behavior. Once key features of an effective environment have been identified, individualized interventions can be determined that address both behaviors and conditions under which they occur.
- Establish plans that are technically sound. Behavior management is not just a series of techniques (e.g., token economies, time-out, response cost, over-correction) but rather is based on foundational principles such as reinforcement, punishment, ex-

tinction, generalization, and stimulus control. Designing technically sound interventions is not always easy, and many people responsible for behavior support have not had substantial training in integrating and applying foundational principles.

- Design plans that are feasible. Consideration should be given for impact on the individuals implementing the plan. Plans should (a) fit the natural routines and schedules of the setting, (b) be compatible with the values of the people in the setting, (c) be efficient in terms of time and resources, (d) be matched to the skills of the implementing individual, and (e) produce encouraging short-term results.
- Diagram *problem-behavior pathways.* The first step in developing a behavior support plan is to diagram testable explanations which sequentially arrange functional assessment information into (a) setting events, (b) predictors, (c) problem behaviors, and (d) maintaining consequences. These can map contextual variables to create problem-behavior pathways. Figure 1 illustrates a problem-behavior pathway.
- Define alternative behaviors and consequences. A behavior-support plan should target reduction of a problem behavior while simultaneously increasing desired behaviors. Define desirable behaviors competing with undesirable behaviors by asking the following:

  1. Once the setting and predictor events have occurred, what is the appropriate behavior the student should perform?
  2. Once the setting and predictor events have occurred, what would be an appropriate alternative behavior that would satisfy the reason for the inappropriate behavior?

  Answering the two questions changes a problem-behavior pathway into a *competing-behavior pathway* as illustrated in Figure 2.
- Select intervention strategies for the plan. Approach the selection of interventions in this order: (a) attempt to alter the influence of setting events, (b) focus on changes in immediate predictors, (c) produce strategies for teaching and promoting desired behaviors, and (d) examine how consequences should be changed

Figure 1. Problem-Behavior Pathway

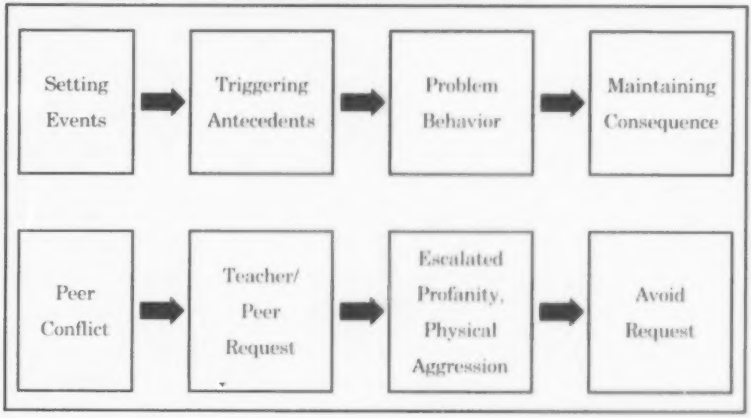
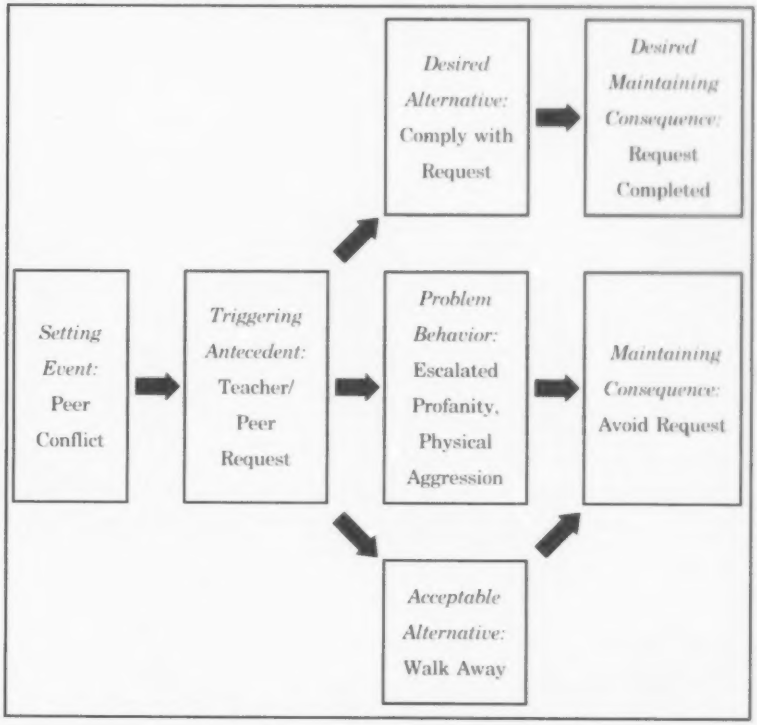


Figure 2. Competing-Behavior Pathway


Desired Alternative: Comply with Request
Desired Maintaining Consequence: Request Completed
Setting Event: Peer Conflict
Triggering Antecedent: Teacher/ Peer Request
Problem Behavior: Escalated Profanity, Physical Aggression
Maintaining Consequence: Avoid Request
Acceptable Alternative: Walk Away

to make the appropriate social behavior more likely to occur. Setting events influence the occurrence of problem behavior by affecting previously existing relationships between behaviors and corresponding predictors and consequences. In other words, setting events can increase the likelihood that certain behaviors will or will not occur because of their influence over predictors and their impact on the value of consequences. Changes in predictors can make the student's need for problem behaviors irrelevant, and therefore, their occurrence is less likely. The goal in changing predictors is to remove or modify the event or circumstance that typically happens before a problem behavior while introducing other predictors that "trigger" a desired or appropriate behavior.

Sprague et al. (in press) reviewed the literature for possible interventions affecting predictors of problem behaviors and summarized potential predictor changes as follows: (a) altering the schedule of activities, (b) adapting the curriculum or particular features of a task, (c) changing the size of instructional groups, (d) providing specific information including timelines about task completion, (e) varying the assignment of easy and difficult assignments, and (f) providing precorrections before inappropriate behavior. Changing the predictors that signal problem behaviors can be a powerful and proactive approach by intervening before problem behaviors occur.

Guidelines for Providing Access to the Internet

4

In this information era, the speed at which information is accessed and used is the key to success. The Internet, according to Zucca (1996), eliminates the barriers of time and proximity in the sharing of information. Harp (1996) stated that the Internet changes the balance of education by allowing equal access to information by all students. Because the efficient use of information is ever more crucial to students' success, educational systems need to provide appropriate opportunities for all students to learn how to efficiently access and use information.

This chapter's author works in a school district which serves a tri-ethnic population comprised of Hispanic, Native American, and White students and which has been experiencing a high dropout rate. Internet use was identified as one strategy that would allow for unique learning experiences which might increase school performance and lower the dropout rate. Implementation of Internet access and use, however, came after extensive discussions with and demonstrations by and for school personnel and parent organizations. Many issues had to be addressed prior to the final implementation including planning, hardware, software, personnel, Internet skill development, and policy considerations.

Planning Issues

A crucial element in the integration process of any new technological tool is planning. Administrators and board members are concerned with cost, technicians are concerned with equipment and support funds, and instructional staff are concerned with receiving specific training. *Strategic planning* can help to ensure systemic change by addressing all the stakeholder concerns affecting the successful integration of the Internet into school practices. The process is comprehensive in nature and the plan that guides it is continually updated. The initial creation of the strategic planning document for the district described here spanned a 2-year period. At its core was a vision of the role for technology in our schools, a vision which governed all the technology decisions.

Hardware

Hardware selection decisions have the potential for derailing efforts to introduce technology into the daily curriculum; indeed, our district struggled with this issue for an entire year. "Platform" choice was our most difficult decision. The future expansion of technology infrastructure along with the reliability of the manufacturer's products were vital considerations. Software selection can drive platform decisions although many vendors now write their software for multiple platform formats. In our district, individuals serving on the district technology committee could be characterized by computer preference. Each committee member took a position that closely resembled his or her computer preference. The PC users tended to be open to a variety of solution strategies while the Macintosh users exhibited a "closed architecture" attitude. As a committee, we failed to reach consensus on the issue of platform, and our Board of Education was eventually forced to make the decision.

We now have a network infrastructure in place and Internet capabilities exist in 75% of our schools. The remaining portions of the district will come on-line when monies become available. As technology matures and cross-platform machines become readily available, this issue will hopefully dissipate.

The hardware necessary for Internet connectivity hinges upon two questions (a) who will have access and (b) where will they have this access. At minimum, the hardware items necessary for a single point of Internet access are a computer, a modem, and a dedicated phone line. If multiple access points are desired for many users, a network must be installed.

Networks

To network Internet access, a sophisticated infrastructure is necessary. There are two distinct types of networks, the wireless and the hard wire. The wireless network allows flexibility of workstation placement, minimal maintenance, and lower cost over the network lifetime. Workstations share applications and can be moved to new sites as needed but must always be within broadcast range of the network server. If workstations are mobile, precautions must also be taken to secure the server from unauthorized access. A number of solutions are available: (a) remove the keyboard, (b) password protect the system, and (c) place application files on the server in a secure sector of the hard drive.

The hard-wire network allows for the sharing of applications similarly to wireless and is the prevalent solution currently in use. Workstation mobility, however, is limited to the physical point at which it connects to the local wire network. This type of network requires more extensive planning and installation effort than wireless. Network design consultants are available, and it may be prudent to seek a consultant's advice. In our district, professional network engineers were commissioned to develop the network infrastructure.

Component Selection

The profusion of Internet components and devices can overwhelm and exhaust a selection committee. The important elements to consider are vision, speed, and cost. Your vision of Internet use must drive all decisions -- reject every piece of equipment (no matter how attractive or inexpensive) that does not lead to the fulfillment of your vision. Speed is also crucial for Internet use. The speed at which information is accessed on the Internet is a function of the size of the

communication "pipe" through which data travel. The majority of the World Wide Web (WWW) data are graphical and require a large pipe. Regardless of the communication pipe you select, network performance is determined by the speed of your slowest network component. The speed at which your network can access and display graphics will determine satisfaction with both the network and the Internet.

In the end, cost remains the determining factor both in the purchase of traditional curriculum materials and in computer equipment purchasing. Investigate carefully "the ratio of cost per unit to options offered" or more simply, "get the most bang for your buck." Many vendors will add software packages, free or reduced cost technical support, and offer price breaks for high volume orders. Do not, for example, hesitate to ask a vendor to bundle software appropriate to your needs with a workstation order.

Software

To access the Internet, a gateway is needed; numerous vendors provide this connectivity. When choosing a vendor, cost again becomes a prime concern. Some commercial service providers advertise low-cost access, but their price structures often contain hidden costs. If, for example, your locale is not serviced by a local phone connection to the commercial service, you will incur additional long distance fees. You can provide your own Internet connection with cost limited to a dedicated phone line, which is the option our school district selected.

The actual software employed to allow Internet access and use can currently be narrowed to two main options, Netscape or Microsoft Explorer. Each software package has relatively equal merit with little difference in functionality. If your PC computers are running Windows 95, then Microsoft Explorer is a standard feature. However, Netscape can be purchased for an economical price. Both software packages can run across a network, and the choice is based primarily on personal preference. We selected Netscape because it allowed us to set the user preferences to our gateway.

Personnel

Any network that is developed will require some technical support. The trend in the business world is to meet this need from outside the firm although "privatization" or "out sourcing" in the public sector still generates much debate. Regardless, technical support is a necessary component of computer networks, and it is best to hire a technician at the onset of implementing the network. The technician is responsible for servicing and maintaining the network equipment. As buildings in your district are brought on-line, additional technical staff may be needed. In our district, the School Board acknowledged the need for technical support and switched from consultant services to departmentalized control. The issue is not so much which option you choose as recognizing and sufficiently meeting the need for technology support.

Internet Skills

Use of the Internet requires an adequate level of computer proficiency. In most cases, these skills will need to be developed in both students and staff. Careful consideration needs to go into the development of a training model to adequately ensure integration of Internet use into the daily routines of the instructional staff. Some organizations make training mandatory while others use a voluntary method with incentives. The key is to empower staff members to integrate the tool with their daily work.

Our district tried a volunteer model of training that hinged on monetary incentives for staff participation. Even though this extrinsic gratification appeared beneficial for morale, it failed to produce the desired effect and was quite costly for the district. Although 60% of the staff took advantage of the training seminars, Internet integration into daily instruction at the conclusion of the first year was negligible. Consequently, the district abandoned voluntary training with financial incentive and is currently experimenting with other models.

Policy Considerations

The Internet offers unique educational opportunities with new features continuously being developed. The addition of graphics affords accessibility by Internet users to information spanning international boundaries. As publicized in the popular media, however, some of this information may be construed as obscene, indecent, or otherwise inappropriate for students. The responsibility for safe Internet use is ultimately the school's and must be addressed prior to implementation of Internet access.

A set of guidelines, sometimes called a code of ethics, to govern the behaviors of the Internet users must be drafted to address the issue of students or staff accessing Web sites displaying inappropriate material. In addition, the guidelines should clearly define safe Internet practices. Each user of your network should be required to sign a copy of the code, and it should be filed at the school. The Board of Education should approve a policy that supports the guidelines with a clear statement of consequences for infractions.

In addition to the guidelines, technological tools can be employed to regulate inappropriate use of the Internet access. Firewalls that filter incoming Internet signals are a piece of software that reads every Internet signal entering your network. There are vendors that provide software firewalls with weekly updates. Anyone on the network attempting access to a site containing illicit material will receive a warning and be denied connection. Although firewalls do have a 1% to 2% margin of error, they will deter a majority of the requests to sites containing prohibited material.

Instructional Design and Videodisk Technology

5

According to the literature, educational outcome data for students with emotional/behavioral disorders (EBD) are not encouraging (Jay & Padilla, 1987; Kauffman, 1997; Paine & Anderson-Inman 1988; Steinberg & Knitzer, 1992; U.S. Department of Education, 1991). Although rarely considered, negative student outcomes may be due to the failure of traditional instruction methods. There is an assumed relationship between EBD and poor educational performance that is crucial to treating the disability (Colvin, Greenburg, & Sherman, 1993). While the causality of this relationship is unclear, research indicates that antisocial behaviors are exacerbated by unstructured, ineffective, and poorly delivered curricula (Kauffman, 1997; Munk & Repp, 1994; Nelson, Johnson, & Marchand-Martella, 1996).

Furthermore, accumulated research indicates "direct modification of academic skills" may prevent school failure among students with EBD by providing the necessary skills for academic success (Lloyd, Hallahan, Kauffman, & Keller, 1991; as cited in Kauffman, 1997, p. 231). Unfortunately, too few programs serving students with EBD have a strong academic curriculum (Epstein, Foley, & Cullinan, 1992; Peacock Hill Working Group, 1991).

Instructional Design That Accommodates Special Learning Needs

For the past dozen years, the National Center to Improve the Tools of Educators (NCITE) has been identifying features of instructional design that accommodate the needs of students who are academically unsuccessful in school. There are various reasons why these diverse learners lag behind. Many are unable to process information quickly due to learning or behavioral disabilities. Others entered school without the learning experiences required to be academically successful (e.g., children of poverty, children with limited English). The NCITE staff synthesized all the available research on instructional design and derived six instructional design principles. Findings of these studies indicate instruction designed according to NCITE's six principles can close the learning gap between students with disabilities and general education peers. A comprehensive summary of this research is available as a college text (Kameenui & Carnine, in press). How each of these principles accommodates the needs of diverse learners is summarized as follows.

- *Big Ideas.* Students with EBD often have difficulty grasping core concepts and distinguishing insignificant details from important points. They also have greater difficulty learning, have fallen behind, and must learn more in less time. To teach more in less time to students with greater learning difficulties requires that instruction be organized around big ideas. Big ideas are concepts and principles that facilitate the most efficient and broadest acquisition of knowledge across a range of examples. Organizing and prioritizing information around fundamental concepts efficiently maximizes student learning because "small" ideas can often be best understood in relationship to larger, "umbrella concepts." Organizing information around big ideas means (a) less information is learned but the information has more power and (b) treatment of information is commensurate with its level of importance (Dixon, Carnine, & Kameenui, 1996).
- *Primed Background Knowledge.* Students with learning difficulties in school may lack prerequisite skills or may not understand instructional vocabulary. Such necessary background

knowledge must be taught or "primed" before student understanding of new learning can occur. This requires teaching component steps and concepts that allow an in-depth understanding of the big idea or strategy. For example, component concepts of the relationship between mass and volume are particularly important in understanding convection. Other component concepts of convection that also relate to density include the effect of heat on density and dynamic pressure. Instruction in these component concepts and their cause-and-effect relationships is crucial to an in-depth understanding of convection.

- *Conspicuous Strategies.* Diverse learners, including students with EBD, frequently have difficulty applying what they have learned to solve complex problems and determining when and where to use strategies taught (Dixon et al., 1996). Therefore, discernible and distinct strategies should be identified and explicitly taught that enable learners to solve difficult tasks. Conspicuous strategies are an approximation of the steps experts follow covertly (and, perhaps, unconsciously) while working toward similar goals. Effective strategy instruction starts with teaching a well-organized knowledge base of component concepts and the ways to apply the big ideas of their relationships in observable, definitive steps.
- *Mediated Scaffolding.* Students with EBD usually have difficulty working independently and require extensive guidance to do so. Scaffolding refers to the personal guidance, assistance, and support a teacher, peer, or task provides to a learner. Students with disparate academic backgrounds and skills need more assistance and support, while higher performing students need less. Forms of scaffolding include teacher modeling, extracting critical skills from text, initially teaching skills in "contrived" (less demanding) contexts, clarifying confusing information, and providing multiple examples before expecting students to perform independently (Dixon et al., 1996). However, if instruction remains too accommodating, students will not eventually become independent. To counter the "dumbing down effect" that often results from highly accommodating instruction, scaffolding should be mediated. This means providing a systematic tran-

sition from initial teacher-directed, modeled, structured, prompted practice within defined problem types to a more naturalistic environment of student-directed, unstructured, unpredictable problems that vary widely across all problem types. This transition can be provided by gradually changing the design of tasks and examples or by changing the level of assistance a teacher may provide.

- *Judicious Review.* Review occurs when students are required to draw upon and apply previously taught knowledge. The principles of effective, efficient, and cumulative review are generally most crucial for students with diverse learning and curricular needs. However, review must be judiciously planned and organized to facilitate better learning, longer retention, and better application. Review is not synonymous with "drill and kill." Judicious review should be (a) sufficient for initial learning to occur, (b) distributed over time, (c) varied for generalizability, and (d) cumulative.
- *Strategic Integration.* This design principle allows for the cake-like form of cumulative review, where learning is integrated into a big idea (a "cake"). Strategic integration also establishes connections between new knowledge and information a learner already knows and understands. However, integrating too much information too fast can easily lead to confusion.

Using Videodisk Instruction to Improve School Performance

A well-designed videodisk program that includes elements of effective instruction is advantageous to use because it is directed toward meeting the needs of both the student and the teacher. A videodisk program designed to incorporate the six design principles just listed can help meet the learning needs of the student with EBD. The structured lessons found on a videodisk are easy to follow, have short segments of information followed by still frames that allow time for student responses, have quickly paced lessons that focus attention on relevant information, and have alternative review sections that allow additional practice. In addition, students with high absentee-

ism, which is common among students with EBD, can view the videodisk program independent of the rest of the class, thus making provision for missed information.

Teachers of students with EBD are expected to manage socially inappropriate behaviors, create behavior-support plans, conduct meetings with parents, consult with fellow staff members, collaborate with other human service agencies, and serve the needs of learners with a wide range of abilities. Because of demands on time and energy, many teachers of students with EBD find themselves unable to design a well structured curriculum. Of necessity, teachers often end up relying on curricula that are cumbersome to implement and/or must be modified because of poor design features. The teacher must then waste valuable time "fixing" a poor program. When this happens, teachers may struggle to meet the diverse academic needs of their students. Too often, seatwork becomes the primary educational procedure, and the teacher is reduced to being little more than a caseworker.

A simple-to-use videodisk program incorporating sound instructional design principles can ameliorate this problem. The organization of instruction and presentation of content provided by the program may give the teacher more time to concentrate on behavior-support interventions that have proven effective with students with EBD. This reduces the teacher's workload during the class session while still providing high-quality academic instruction. Videodisk instruction also allows practitioners to make better use of their planning time because they do not have to create their own materials.

While teacher considerations are important, the videodisk program would not be a quality tool if it did not have positive effects on student learning as well. To demonstrate the effects of the videodisk program and student learning, Niedelmann (1992) found the *Core Concepts Earth Science* videodisk program was significantly more effective than instruction by a good teacher involving a textbook and hands-on labs twice a week. The students in the videodisk treatment scored more than twice as high as the control group. A student with EBD receiving the videodisk instruction designed for diverse learners scored much higher than the mean of the other students in the class.

Selection and Evaluation Procedures for Instructional Tools

Many of the technological tools available for instruction might seem appealing, but before purchasing a popular product for classroom use, teachers should carefully consider instructional design issues. Evaluation of materials should occur at three levels. First, systematically screen programs for closer evaluation. Second, evaluate programs according to principles of instructional design, and finally, accrue student performance data for each finalist program.

Initial Screening Questions

Certain screening questions should be asked when selecting educational tools, technology, or materials. If the questions are not satisfactorily answered, then a cost-benefit analysis should be undertaken to determine if the program should be dropped from consideration. Four questions are asked to initially screen programs and narrow choices:

- How do student assignments at the beginning of a level compare with those at the end?
- Is the assumed competence at the beginning of the program appropriate for the lowest student who will be in the program?
- Are the expectations at the end of the program worthwhile goals?
- Do the goals of the curriculum material match the goals of the school?

Once initial screening questions have been addressed, the focus should shift to the design of the program.

Instructional Design Questions

The following questions are organized around the six design principles that accommodate special learning needs.

- *Big Ideas.* Evaluate materials to determine the extent to which content knowledge is organized into larger scale, cohesive ideas ("big" ideas that have wide application), rather than covering a

large number of fragmented and unrelated vocabulary concepts. When evaluating big ideas in a program, two questions should be asked: (a) Is the number of objectives reasonable for diverse learners? (b) Does the instructional yield seem commensurate with the learning time?

- *Conspicuous Strategies.* Look for conspicuous models for using principles (and content) and for conspicuous illustrations of the steps students should use in problem solving. Remember, more students become proficient when skills are explicitly taught. In addition, consider that many currently popular programs use activity-based instruction to teach the methodology but do not conspicuously focus instruction on important strategies. When evaluating materials for conspicuous strategies, ask the following four questions.
  1. Are the steps for a strategy clear and complete?
  2. Will the strategy consistently apply to all relevant problems without fail?
  3. Are the strategies applicable to a wide range of problems, or must they be modified or unlearned in later work?
  4. Are important discriminations made conspicuous?
- *Mediated Scaffolding.* Examine the initial instruction and the independent application to see if the tool provides "in-between" application tasks that are scaffolded. Questions of concern to the mediated scaffolding principle include the following.
  1. Are prompts, cues, templates, consistent sentence sequences, and so on used to scaffold initial instruction? (Either the teacher's wording, the item form, or both may provide scaffolds.)
  2. Does the program guide give guidelines for correcting student errors during the lesson?
  3. Are scaffolds progressively removed until each student is finally expected to do the work without the help of the teacher or other students?
  4. Has enough practice been provided to make this expectation reasonable?

5. Do the complex tasks require only the use of strategies and components that have been taught?
6. Does the text give guidelines for checking student performance at the end of a lesson or group of lessons?
7. Does the text indicate how the teacher should restore scaffolding if the instruction moved too quickly for some students?

- *Strategic Integration.* Many current programs are organized around units that can be taught in almost any order. While this design allows flexibility in choice of topics, it encourages a fragmented understanding of content. Curricular materials that use strategic integration to build an integrated understanding around underlying causal principles, such as convection, rather than around more superficial units, such as geology, meteorology, or oceanography, cannot be rearranged so easily. To evaluate strategic integration in a program, educators need to consider the following three questions.
  1. Is new information presented one concept or skill at a time?
  2. Are component skills integrated and applied in progressively more complex tasks?
  3. Are the component skills well established prior to integration into the more complex tasks?
- *Primed Background Knowledge.* Examine whether the fundamental component concepts underlying the "big ideas" are carefully instructed. Possible questions examining primed background knowledge include
  1. Are new concepts introduced using familiar vocabulary?
  2. Is new vocabulary introduced using familiar concepts?
  3. Are component skills taught prior to instruction in the complex tasks of which they are a part?
- *Judicious Review.* Any or all research-based characteristics of effective review can be used as criteria for selecting educational tools:

1. Is the review sufficient to enhance learning for diverse learners?
2. Is the review distributed relatively easily by attending to some sort of distributed review schedule?
3. Is the review cumulative?
4. Does the review integrate the important older learning with new learning?
5. Is the review appropriately varied?

Evaluation of Student Performance Data

It is critical to gather, review, and compare performance data on student achievement for each finalist program. The limited number of programs on the market with learner verification data cause most curricula to be suspect. At the very least, education professionals should ask the publisher for names of schools using programs under consideration. If publishers are reluctant to divulge this information, then a selection committee should consider first doing a pilot or field-test or reconsider the purchase. Lastly, when seeking recommendations about curricula from schools, inquire about changes in school performance levels since the school began using the program.

The TABS Program: A School-Wide Approach for Children and Youth with Behavioral Problems

6

In the preface to *The Illusion of Full Inclusion* (1995), Kauffman and Hallahan cite Burton Blatt's (1979) caution to special educators about advocacy unrestrained by careful analysis and reliable data. They proceed to label inclusion, "special education's largest bandwagon ever, one having gathered such a great mass and momentum that it seems to many unstoppable" (p. ix). While the inclusionist's goal of merging general and special education into one system adequate for all students (regardless of learning and behavioral characteristics) has not been accomplished, where students with disabilities receive educational service has shifted toward the general education classroom.

According to the *Eighteenth Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act* (U. S.

Department of Education, 1996), a total of 5,439,626 children and youth, aged 3 to 21 years, were served under IDEA Part B during the 1994-95 school year. A review of 5-year trends revealed that from 1990-91 through 1994-95, the number of students served under IDEA Part B increased 12.7%. During the 1993-94 school year, approximately 12% of elementary and secondary students received special education services, and 95% of those students were served in regular school buildings. Data for students with disabilities, aged 6 to 12, indicate that during the past several years the percentage of students with disabilities served in general education classrooms has increased while the percentage of students in resource rooms has decreased.

While service delivery strategies and statistics provide fuel for debate, teachers and building administrators concentrate on providing students with a daily educational experience that is safe and in which learning occurs. A classroom teacher is less concerned with the *right* of an individual child to be in his or her classroom than that child be punctual and attend class regularly, possess the necessary instructional materials, be cooperative and motivated to participate in the learning process, and acquire the expected knowledge and skills at an acceptable rate. Building administrators are sensitive to being in compliance with laws, regulations, and rules regarding the rights and privileges of their students. On a daily basis, however, they are more likely to spend time and effort scheming to provide adequate resources for their teachers; minimizing disruptions of teaching and learning; and maintaining a safe campus while building positive relationships with their community.

In the arena of day-to-day education, the first and most important concern is that *the teaching-learning process proceed uninterrupted*. Placing increased numbers of students with disabilities, especially those with emotional/behavioral disorders (EBD), in mainstream classes elevates the probability of disruption to teaching and learning. What follows is a description of a schoolwide intervention program implemented by the faculty and staff of an elementary school for students who chronically disrupt classroom instruction and learning.

The Elementary School

While the physical plant and grounds had been regularly maintained, the school had not received a major renovation since original construction in 1952. For 37 years, the school sustained a reputation for excellence and employed a capable and stable teaching faculty. In 1987-88, a new principal was assigned the school, and a series of rezoning actions changed the composition of the student body from predominantly "professional" middle class to predominantly "blue collar," with 79% receiving a free or reduced-price lunch. The average daily attendance remained steady at slightly more than 500 students per year with a mobility rate of 30%. Over the next 5 years, faculty transferred to other schools, morale sagged, and in 1993 the school's turmoil was being regularly reported by the local news media. In midyear, a new principal was appointed to revitalize the management team, faculty, and staff and to initiate a series of interventions and programs to improve curriculum and instruction, community relations, and discipline. Exacerbating the problems of school discipline was the faculty's pervasive punitive behavior-management philosophy and tradition of swiftly referring "difficult" children for special education eligibility evaluation. In fact, more than a quarter of the student body had been referred and placed in one or another special education program.

Rather than issue unilateral mandates, the management team chose to use the State School Improvement Program as a vehicle to appoint a faculty committee directly responsible for the effort to improve school discipline. The committee's task was to design and implement a school-wide discipline plan to provide a framework for (a) a positive philosophy of behavior management, (b) faculty responsibility for classroom discipline, and (c) data management for decision making. The cornerstone of the plan that emerged from the committee was the Teaching Appropriate Behavior for Success (TABS) program. The TABS program precursor was the engineered classroom developed by Hewett (1968) with similarities to the levels systems described by Walker and Shea (1995). TABS was endorsed by the faculty and staff with a statement of belief and purpose printed in the school's faculty handbook from which the following excerpt is taken:

It is the belief of this faculty that children must be taught appropriate behavior before they can be expected to exhibit it. Further, acceptable school behavior begins and is maintained in the individual classroom. Consequently, it is expected that each teacher will have a positive behavior management program to develop and maintain student behavior necessary to a successful learning environment. It is our firm belief that children can be punished only into surface compliance while internal control and motivation are taught and maintained over time. It is also recognized that a few children will persistently misbehave and disrupt classroom instruction in spite of the teacher's classroom behavior management program. For these children the TABS program is available. TABS is designed to (a) provide "team support" to teachers, (b) increase parent participation in teaching the child more appropriate behaviors, (c) provide a detailed record of the child's daily behaviors, (d) be a comprehensive mainstream intervention prior to referral for special education evaluation, and (e) increase a child's appropriate behavior to a point at which the child can be maintained by the classroom behavior management system.

The Program

The TABS program was created to serve the 1% to 3% of general and special education students who cannot or will not respond appropriately to teachers' classroom management systems. It was intended to provide attention and support from every member of the faculty and staff to instill appropriate self-control and social and learning habits in the child. Participants are required to satisfactorily meet behavioral and academic goals at five levels, with each succeeding level requiring more independence and higher behavior standards. In practice, a student placed on TABS carries a clipboard and daily schedule of activities broken into 30- to 45-minute rating blocks. At the end of each rating block, the supervising adult writes a rating of the student's performance on the daily schedule with a relevant comment as necessary. For students at the first two levels, lunch is eaten with the principal or another management team member and the morning's ratings are reviewed. At the end of the day, every student on TABS meets with a member of the management team to have the ratings calculated and recorded in the TABS daily log.

The student is responsible for taking the daily rating sheet home and having it reviewed by the parent. If the rating sheet is not taken home, the parent is expected to immediately inform a designated member of the management team. Students not making acceptable progress at the first level are referred for review by the education planning team. Descriptions of specific elements of the TABS program that follow were drawn from the procedures listed in the school's faculty handbook.

Procedure for Placing a Student in the TABS Program

A student who fails to respond appropriately to school rules, the classroom discipline plan, and a teacher's special intervention efforts is considered for the TABS program. At least two parent-teacher conferences (or home visits) are required prior to beginning the placement process, and the parent is notified that the teacher is considering TABS as an intervention. Referral to TABS consists of four steps.

1. The referring teacher and other involved staff members (e.g., resource teachers, aides) complete a Teacher Rating Form (K-1 or 2-5). When completed, the rating forms are given to the behavioral resource teacher (BRT). See Figures 3 and 4 for the Teacher Rating Forms.
2. Within one calendar week, the BRT schedules an educational planning team (EPT) meeting attended by as many of the following faculty and staff as possible: teachers, principal, BRT, psychologist, counselor, curriculum resource teacher (CRT), resource teacher representative, and home liaison worker.
3. During the EPT meeting, the student's behavior is reviewed to determine whether his or her misbehavior (a) is persistent and consistent across all school settings and (b) is sufficiently frequent and intense to justify a TABS placement. Previous teacher interventions and support services are reviewed to identify which should be continued and which if any new interventions and/or services might be effective. After review of all information, the team makes a recommendation to continue or modify the present interventions and services or to place the child in the TABS program at a specific level.

Figure 3. Teacher Rating Scale for Kindergarten and Grade 1

Teacher Rating of Individual-Level Student Behavior Grades K & 1

Student's Name _____ Date _____

Teacher _____ Grade _____

Key: Student behaves

5: without prompting, as expected of students in this grade

4: with some prompting, as expected of students in this grade

3: with much prompting, as expected of students in this grade

2: with much prompting, less than expected of students in this grade

1: with much prompting, none or much less than expected of students in this grade

Circle the rating that best fits this student's usual behavior:

1. Raises hand, seated	1	2	3	4	5
2. Stays seated	1	2	3	4	5
3. Pays attention	1	2	3	4	5
4. Works on assigned tasks	1	2	3	4	5
5. Is quiet in classroom and on walkways	1	2	3	4	5
6. Follows directions from all school adults the first time given	1	2	3	4	5
7. Responds to others with good manners and uses appropriate social language	1	2	3	4	5
8. Ignores inappropriate peer behavior	1	2	3	4	5
9. Keeps hands, feet, and object to self	1	2	3	4	5
10. Follows playground rules	1	2	3	4	5
Overall rating of student's behavior	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Comments _____

_____

Figure 4. Teacher Rating Scale for Grades 2 Through 5

Teacher Rating of Individual-Level Student Behavior Grades 2 - 5

Student's Name _____ Date _____

Teacher _____ Grade _____

Key: Student behaves

5: without prompting, as expected of students in this grade

4: with some prompting, as expected of students in this grade

3: with much prompting, as expected of students in this grade

2: with much prompting, less than expected of students in this grade

1: with much prompting, none or much less than expected of students in this grade

Circle the rating that best fits this student's usual behavior:

1. Is present and on time for class	1	2	3	4	5
2. Has proper materials	1	2	3	4	5
3. Pays attention	1	2	3	4	5
4. Completes assignments correctly & on time	1	2	3	4	5
5. Completes homework correctly & on time	1	2	3	4	5
6. Raises hand, seated	1	2	3	4	5
7. Changes class/activities correctly	1	2	3	4	5
8. Is quiet in classroom and on walkways	1	2	3	4	5
9. Follows directions from all school adults the first time given	1	2	3	4	5
10. Responds to others with good manners and uses appropriate social language	1	2	3	4	5
11. Ignores inappropriate peer behavior	1	2	3	4	5
12. Keeps hands, feet, and objects to self	1	2	3	4	5
Overall rating of student's behavior	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Comments _____

4. If the team recommends placement in the TABS program, the child's teacher contacts the parent and explains the program prior to beginning the intervention.

Daily Rating Sheet, Ratings, and Comments

When a student begins the TABS program, a daily rating sheet is prepared that includes the following information: student's name, TABS level (red, yellow, yellow plus, green, or white), expected behaviors (listed on each rating sheet) daily student schedule, point total goal, and any special provisions for the individual student. See Figure 5 for a sample rating sheet.

During the school day, students receive a rating of 0 to 5 points for each time interval on the point sheet. The daily point system is used in conjunction with and not in place of the general classroom disciplinary strategies and the school district's Code of Student Conduct consequences. Any rating of three or less is accompanied by a written comment about the behavior that elicited the low rating. The criteria used by the faculty and staff for awarding ratings on the daily rating sheet follow.

- 5 points: Student exhibits the appropriate expected behaviors without prompts or cues.
- 4 points: Student exhibits the appropriate expected behaviors with some prompts and cues.
- 3 points: Student exhibits the appropriate expected behavior only with persistent prompts and cues.
- 2 points: Student exhibits some of the appropriate expected behaviors after prompts, cues, and the usual classroom behavior management interventions have been invoked.
- 1 point: Student does not exhibit the appropriate expected behaviors after prompts, cues, and the usual classroom behavior management interventions have been invoked, but behavior is tolerable.
- 0 points: Student does not exhibit the appropriate expected behaviors after prompts, cues, and the usual classroom behavior management interventions have been invoked and classroom

behavior is intolerable or disruptive. Student is removed from the classroom to time-out room with a formal discipline referral.

TABS Levels

Red Level. The red-level goal is to eliminate inappropriate behavior patterns and elicit appropriate behavior through external consequences and reinforcement. A student who earns 75% of the possible points for 20 days is eligible to move to the yellow level, provided the points are earned (a) without more than a one-day gap or (b) without a total of 3 days' failure to earn minimum points. If either (a) or (b) occurs, the student begins the level again. At this level, appropriate expected behaviors from the student include the following:

- Be quiet.
- Stay in assigned seat or area.
- Keep hands, feet, and objects to self.
- Move with a designated adult or responsible peer throughout the school.
- Follow behavior directions and attempt some teacher designated academic tasks.
- Earn 75% of points possible during the day.

Interventions available to assist students meet goal and exhibit appropriate expected behaviors at all five levels include but are not limited to the following list.

- Student participation in small-group or individual counseling and in beginning the process of individual goal setting.
- Pairing with mentor from green or white level if possible.
- Daily performance reviewed and discussed by principal or BRT during lunch.
- Daily performance reviewed and discussed by principal or BRT at end-of-day checkout.
- Home liaison services offered to family.
- If disability suspected, referral process begun.

- Weekly review meetings, as needed, held by members of the EPT team. If necessary, the classroom teachers are relieved of duties to attend the meeting.
- Regular contact by the BRT with the family to encourage and inform them of progress.
- Attendance by at least one family member at one review meeting during the time the student is on red level.

Student restrictions until 75% of daily points are earned for 10 consecutive days include not attending field trips, special school activities, programs, assemblies, or resource classes. The student receives individual tutoring in reading, math, or other appropriate academic areas during the time these activities are scheduled. Restrictions during the entire time the student is on red level include not eating in the cafeteria (lunch is eaten in time-out room), not participating in recess (supervised exercise is provided), and using the media center only with adult supervision. The penalty for earning a zero on the point sheet at all levels includes but is not limited to the following consequences.

- Removal from the classroom to the time-out room and completion of a STEPS sheet.
- Immediate notification of parent.
- Formal discipline report paired with zero.
- Two zeros in one day results in either in-school or out-of-school suspension for balance of the day or the next day.

Yellow and Yellow Plus Level. The goal during the yellow levels is to have the child internalize appropriate behavior habits through continuous practice and reinforcement. A student who earns 85% of the possible points for 20 days is eligible to move to the green level, provided the points are earned (a) without more than a one-day gap or (b) without a total of 3 days' failure to earn minimum points. If either (a) or (b) occurs, the student begins the level again. Students with consistent minimal performance may be required to remain at the yellow-plus level for an additional 10 days to demonstrate performance above the minimal score of 85%.

Figure 5. Sample Daily Rating Sheet for Red Level

Student's Name _____ Week of _____

Score = Point Scale of 0 to 5

Monday

Time Period/Subject	Score	Comments
Percentage		75% of daily points possible is the minimum goal

Expected Behaviors — The student will

- Be quiet.
- Stay in assigned seat or area.
- Keep hands, feet, and objects to self.
- Follow behavior directions.
- Attempt some teacher-designated tasks.
- Move with teacher, staff, or peer.
- Attend specials after earning 75% of points for 10 days.

Students with two or more restarts at the yellow levels are reviewed by the EPT team to determine if a return to red level or another intervention should begin. At this level, appropriate expected behaviors from the student include the following:

- Raise hand for permission to talk.
- Talk in an appropriate manner and voice volume.
- Exhibit acceptable transition behaviors (walk quietly, take a direct route, keep to self).
- Watch teacher and follow directions.
- Move away from misbehaving peers.
- Complete 75% of teacher-designated academic tasks.
- Earn 85% of points possible during the day.

Restrictions until yellow or yellow-plus level is successfully completed include not eating in the cafeteria (lunch continues to be eaten in time-out room), using the media center without adult supervision only at the teacher's discretion, and participating in recess only at the teacher's discretion.

Green Level. The green-level goal is to instill, as habit, self-control and appropriate school behavior through continuous practice and reinforcement. A student who earns 90% of the possible points for 20 days, receiving only fours and fives in the final 10 days, is eligible to graduate from the TABS program provided the points are earned (a) without more than a one-day gap or (b) without a total of 3 days' failure to earn minimum points. If either (a) or (b) occurs, the student begins the level again. Students with consistent minimal performance may be required to remain at the green level for an additional 10 days to demonstrate performance above the minimal score of 90%. Students with two or more restarts at the green level are reviewed by the EPT team to determine if a return to another level or another intervention should begin. At this level, appropriate expected behaviors from students include the following.

- Follow all school and classroom rules and routines.
- Work independently on academic assignments.

- Evaluate their own behavior.
- Earn 90% of points possible during the day.

There are no restrictions at the green level. The student is expected to appropriately participate in all the school activities with his or her peers.

White Level. The white-level goal is to provide transition support to the child after completion of the TABS program. The point sheet is identical to the green-level sheet, and the child remains on the white level only until the classroom teacher and parents think the student is ready to be independent. No records are kept in the log but the point sheet continues to be taken home.

Daily TABS Log

As stated earlier, the TABS program is intended to serve 1% to 3% of a school's enrollment or, in the case outlined here, about 5 to 15 students at any given time. Twenty minutes before the end of the school day, every student on TABS returns to the time-out room. There, the daily rating sheets are reviewed and ratings summed and then divided by the total possible points to yield a daily percentage. The daily percentage is entered into the program log along with any relevant comments from the rating sheet. The students then return to their classrooms for dismissal. The program log consists of a three-ring notebook with log sheets for each child on TABS (see Figure 6 for an example). Recording each child's daily percentage and comments provides a record of performance for review as needed.

Impact

The TABS program was but one element of a comprehensive discipline plan developed by a faculty committee. Consequently, specific change in school climate, student behavior, and safety cannot be directly attributed to it. Nonetheless, some objective indicators can be cited as evidence that TABS has had an impact.

- With TABS as a prereferral intervention to a special education eligibility assessment, faculty referrals to special education de-

clined more than 50% over a 3-year period. It is speculated that early involvement of the EPT and the requirements for placement on TABS may have eliminated many false-positive special education referrals.

- Referral for TABS placement fell from 92 in the first year to 31 in the third year. It is surmised that, as performance expectations and components of the discipline plan became ingrained, the faculty and staff simply took more personal responsibility for teaching acceptable behavior before expecting students to exhibit it.
- Referrals to the time-out room were reduced from 610 in the first year to 336 in the third year. Some of the improvement can be traced to the individual children in or completing the TABS program who changed from generating many time-out referrals to none.
- Discipline referrals for serious behavior infractions decreased from 481 the first year to 150 the third year. As with time-out referrals, a portion of the change can be attributed to TABS students not receiving any or only a few discipline referrals.

Figure 6. TABS Log Page

Name _____

Date	Level	Day	Percent	Comment

7

Summary

We think the evolution of curriculum and instruction for children and youth with emotional/behavioral disorders is a process of continuous change moving from less effective to more effective — though not always in a linear course and always subject to cultural and social influence. In this context, the chapter authors have presented a number of milestones worth consideration.

Di, Stewart, and Lisner reminded us that special education and multicultural education share many of the same children, have mutual goals, and employ most of the same instructional methods. Hagan and Sugai pointed out that inappropriate behavior has purpose and function for the individual exhibiting it. Further, they asserted the need for proactive planning and interventions that address the function and purpose of these behaviors. Smith used his personal experience to provide practical guidelines for developing access to the Internet. Burke, Coulter, and Grossen's concern that few programs serving students with EBD have strong academic curriculums motivated their description of instructional design principles and procedures for instructional tool evaluation. Finally, the day-to-day concern that the classroom teaching/learning process proceed uninterrupted was the stimulus for a school-wide intervention program described by Schmid.

We believe it true that educators should be more interested in the social and academic progress of an individual student and less con-

cerned with the right of that child to be mainstreamed or included. To make it true, education professionals must continue to develop, test, and share curriculum and instructional innovation. We hope this monograph will be useful to our colleagues in increasing the effectiveness of their work with exceptional children.

References

8

Alberto, P. A., & Troutman, A. C. (1995). *Applied behavior analysis for teachers* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bell, K., Young, K. R., Blair, M., & Nelson, R. (1990). Facilitating mainstreaming of students with behavioral disorders using classwide peer tutoring. *School Psychology Review, 19*, 564-573.

Bennett, C. I. (1995). *Comprehensive multicultural education: Theory and practice* (3rd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Blatt, B. (1979). Bandwagons also go to funerals: Unmailed letters 1 and 2. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 12*(4), 17-19.

Center, D. B. (1989). *Curriculum and teaching strategies for student with behavioral disorders*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Clark-Johnson, G. (1988). Black children. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 20*(4), 46-47.

Colvin, G., Greenburg, S., & Sherman, R. (1993). Improving academic skills for students with serious emotional disturbances: The forgotten variable. In J. Marr, G. Sugai, & G. Tindal (Eds.) *The Oregon Conference monograph 1993* (Vol. 5, pp. 9-14). Eugene, OR: University of Oregon.

Correa, V., & Tulbert, B. (1991). Teaching culturally diverse students. *Preventing School Failure, 35*(3), 20-25.

Council for Children with Behavior Disorders. (1989). Best assessment practices for students with behavior disorders: Accommodation to cultural diversity and individual differences. *Behavioral Disorders, 14*, 263-278.

Cremin, L. (1988). *American education: The metropolitan experience, 1876-1980*. New York: Harper & Row.

Cushner, K., McClelland, A., & Stafford, P. (1992). *Human diversity in education: An integrative approach*, New York: Macmillan.

Davidman, L., & Davidman, P. T. (1997). *Teaching with a multicultural perspective*. New York: Longman.

Dixon, R., Carnine, D. W., & Kameenui, E. J. (1996). *Instructional tools for students with learning difficulties*. Reston, VA: The Council for Exceptional Children.

Epstein, M. H., Foley, R. M., & Cullinan, D. (1992). National survey of educational programs for adolescents with serious emotional disturbances. *Behavioral Disorders, 17*, 202-210.

Friend, M., & Bursuck, W. D. (1996). *Including students with special needs: A practical guide for classroom teachers.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Gable, R. A. (1996). A critical analysis of functional assessment: Issues for researchers and practitioners. *Behavioral Disorders, 22,* 36-40.

Gay, G. (1992). The state of multicultural education in the United States. In K. Adam-Nordley (Ed.), *Education in plural society: International perspectives* (pp. 47-66). Calgary, Canada: Detselig.

Gersten, R., Brengelman, S., & Jimenez, R. (1994). Effective instruction for culturally and linguistically diverse students: A reconceptualization. *Focus on Exceptional Children, 27*(1), pp. 1-16.

Grossman, H. (1991). Special education in a diverse society: Improving services for minority and working-class students. *Preventing School Failure, 36*(l), 19-27.

Harp, L. (1996, October). The history wars. *Electronic Learning, 16,* 32-42.

Hewett, F. M. (1968). *The emotionally disturbed child in the classroom.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Horner, R. H. (1994). Functional assessment: Contributions and future directions. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 27,* 401-404.

Hyun, J. K., & Fowler, S. A. (1995). Respect, cultural sensitivity, and communication: Promoting participation by Asian families in the individualized family service plan. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 28*(1), 25-28.

Jay, D., & Padilla, C. (1987). *Special education dropouts.* Melo Park, CA: SRI International.

Jimenez, R. T., & Gamez, A. (1996). Literature-based cognitive strategy instruction for middle school Latina/o students. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 40*(2), 84-91.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1989-1990). Social skills for successful group work. *Educational Leadership, 47*(4), 29-33.

Kagan, S. (1989-1990). The structural approach to cooperative learning. *Educational Leadership, 47*(4), 12-15.

Kameenui, E., & Carnine, D. (in press). *Effective strategies for teaching students with diverse learning and curricular needs.* Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Kauffman, J. (1997). *Characteristics of emotional and behavioral disorders of children and youth.* Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Kauffman, J. M., & Hallahan, D. P. (Eds.). (1995). *The illusion of full inclusion: A comprehensive critique of a current special education bandwagon.* Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Lynch, J. (1989). *Multicultural education in a global society.* New York: The Falmer Press.

Moffow, R. D. (1989, September). What's in a name? In particular, a Southeast Asian name? *Young Children,* 20-23.

Maheady, L., Mallette, B., & Harper, G. F. (1991). Accommodating cultural, linguistic, and academic diversity: Some peer-mediated instructional options. *Preventing School Failure, 36*(1), 28-31.

Marks, J. W., Van Laeys, J., Bender, W. N., & Scott, K. S. (1996). Teachers create learning strategies: Guidelines for classroom creation. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 28*(4), 34-38.

Mayer, G. M. (1995). Preventing antisocial behavior in the schools. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 28*, 467-478.

McKinney, J. D., Montague, M., & Hocutt, A. M. (1993). *A synthesis of research literature on assessment and identification of attention deficit disorder*. Coral Gables, FL: Miami Center for Synthesis of Research on Attention Deficit Disorder, University of Miami. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 363 087)

Montague, M., Applegate, B., & Marquard, K. (1993). Cognitive strategy-instruction and mathematical problem-solving performance of students with learning disabilities. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 8*(4), 223-232.

Munk, D., & Repp, A. C. (1994). The relationship between instructional variables and problem behavior: a review. *Exceptional Children, 60*, 390-401.

Nelson, R., J., Johnson, A., & Marchand-Martella, N. E.. (1996). Effects of direct instruction, cooperative learning, and independent learning practices on the classroom behavior of students with behavior disorders: A comparative analysis. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 4* (1), 53-62.

Niedelmann, M. (1992). Problem solving and transfer. In D. Carnine & E. Kameenui (Eds.), *Higher order thinking: Designing curriculum for mainstreamed students* (pp. 137-156). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Nieto, S. (1992). *Affirming diversity: The sociopolitical context of multicultural education*. New York: Longman.

O'Neill, R. E., Horner, R. H., Albin, R. W., Sprague, J. R., Storey, J. S., & Newton, J. S. (1997). *Functional assessment and program development for problem behavior: A practical handbook* (2nd ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Pai, Y. (1984, January). Cultural diversity and multicultural education. *Lifelong Learning*, 7-9, 27.

Paine. S. C., & Anderson-Inman, L. (1988). Teaching academic skills to behaviorally disturbed students. In D. P. Morgan & W. R. Jenson (Eds.), *Teaching behaviorally disordered students: Preferred practices* (pp. 195-241). Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Paine, S. C., Radicchi, J., Rosellini, L. C., Deutchman, L., & Darch, C. B. (1983). *Structuring your classroom for academic success*. Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Paris, S. G., & Winograd, P. (1990). How metacognition can promote academic learning and instruction. In B. F. Jones & L. Idol (Eds.), *Dimensions of thinking and cognitive instruction* (pp. 15-48). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Peacock Hill Working Group. (1991). Problems and promises in special education and related sources for children and youth with emotional or behavior disorders. *Behavioral Disorders, 16*, 299-313.

Platt, J. S., Cranston-Gingras, A., & Scott, J. (1991). Understanding and educating migrant students. *Preventing School Failure, 36*(1), 41-45.

Rueda, R., & Garcia, E. (1996). Teachers' perspectives on literacy assessment and instruction with language-minority students: A comparative study. *The Elementary School Journal, 96*(3), 311-332.

Ruiz, N. T. (1989). An optimal learning environment for Rosemary. *Exceptional Children, 56*, 130-144.

Sadovnik, A. R., Cookson, P. W., & Semel, S. F. (1994). *Exploring education*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Salend, S. J. (1994). *Effective mainstreaming: Creating inclusive classrooms* (2nd ed., pp. 269-310). New York: Macmillan.

Schumaker, J. B., Denton, P. H., & Deshler, D. D. (1984). *The paraphrasing strategy*. Lawrence, KS: The University of Kansas.

Scruggs, T. E., & Brigham, F. J. (1990). The challenges of metacognitive instruction. *Remedial and Special Education, 11*(6), 16-18.

Shea, T. M., & Bauer, A. M. (1997). *Special education: A social systems perspective* (2nd ed.). Chicago: Brown & Benchmark.

Sprague, J. R., Sugai, G. M., & Walker, H. M. (in press). Antisocial Behavior in schools. In S. Watson & F. Gresham (Eds.), *Child behavior therapy: Ecological considerations in assessment, treatment, and evaluation*. Page numbers for chapter? New York: Plenum Press.

Steinberg, Z., & Knitzer, J. (1992). Classrooms for emotionally and behaviorally disturbed students: Facing the challenge. *Behavior Disorders, 16*, 145-156.

Sugai, G., & Horner, R. H. (1996). *Antisocial behavior, discipline, and behavioral support: A look from the schoolhouse door*. Unpublished manuscript, Behavioral Research and Teaching, University of Oregon, Eugene.

Sugai, G., & Lewis, T. J. (1996, December). Preferred and promising practices for social skills instruction. *Focus on Exceptional Children, 29* (4), 1-16.

Tobin, T. J. (1994). *Behavior challenges: A teacher's guide to functional assessment*. Eugene, OR: University of Oregon, Behavior Disorders Program.

U.S. Department of Education. (1991). *Youth with disabilities: How are they doing? The first comprehensive report from the National Longitudinal Transitional Study of Special Education Students*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

U.S. Department of Education. (1996). *Eighteenth Annual Report to Congress on the implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act*. Washington, DC: Author.

Walker, J. E., & Shea, T. M. (1995). *Behavior management: A practical approach for educators* (6th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Merrill.

Walker, J. L. (1988). Young American Indian children. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 20*(4), 50-51.

Yee, L. Y. (1988). Asian children. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 20*(4), 49-50.

Zucca, G. (1996, October). On-line writing clinics on the World Wide Web. *Syllabus, 10*, 48-49.